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8 **IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**
9 **CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA**
10

11 **Elijah Behringer,**

12 Plaintiff,

13 v.
14

15 **California Polytechnic State University,**
16 et al.,

17 Defendants.
18

Case No. 5:23-cv-00934-JFW(SK)

**OBJECTIONS TO REPORT AND
RECOMMENDATION**

19 **Introduction**

20 Here is a question you may be considering:

21 “Every case with a similar factual background (relating to COVID mandates) and due
22 process has failed to surpass the motion to dismiss stage. Why on Earth should yours
23 prevail?”

24 Here is the answer: I am raising an issue of law that those cases did not address.
25 “Questions which merely lurk in the record, neither brought to the attention of the court
26 nor ruled upon, are not to be considered as having been so decided as to constitute
27 precedents.” Cooper Indus., Inc. v. Aviall Servs., Inc., 543 U.S. 157, 170 (2004). “Cases
28

are ‘not precedential for propositions not considered... if a prior case does not raise or consider the implications of a legal argument, it does not constrain our analysis.’” Alonso-Juarez v. Garland, No. 15-72821, 2023 WL 5811043, at *12 (9th Cir. Sept. 8, 2023).

Here are a couple examples where factually similar “precedent” is not binding:

“Respondent suggests that *Brewer* implicitly held that the right to counsel attached to the factually related murder when the suspect was arraigned on the abduction charge.... The Court’s opinion, however, simply did not address the significance of the fact that the suspect had been arraigned only on the abduction charge, nor did the parties in any way argue this question.

Constitutional rights are not defined by inferences from opinions which did not address the question at issue.” Texas v. Cobb, 532 U.S. 162, 169 (2001) (emphasis added).

“[W]hen questions of jurisdiction have been passed on in prior decisions *sub silentio*, this Court has never considered itself bound when a subsequent case finally brings the jurisdictional issue before us.” Hagans v. Lavine, 415 U.S. 528, 533 (1974)

In the adversary system of American law, “[a]n argument not properly argued or explained is waived.” Pfaendler v. Town of Sahuarita, No. CV-20-00188-TUC-JCH, 2023 WL 2072498, at *6 (D. Ariz. Feb. 17, 2023). To the best of my knowledge, there is no factually similar case that has ruled yet on this particular question of law. Although this issue has already been raised and glossed over in my complaint and opposition briefs to the Defendants’ motions to dismiss, I will now expound upon this matter and give it greater dimension.

1 Declaration of Facts

2 1. I, Plaintiff Elijah Behringer, declare that all allegations and material from the Plaintiff's
3 complaint are supplemental to this brief of objections; and
4 2. This brief of objections responds directly to Magistrate Judge Steve Kim's report and
5 recommendation to grant the pending motions to dismiss in favor of the Defendants.
6

7 Factually Similar Cases

8 It is no secret that courts have been rejecting cases like this one on a massive scale at the
9 motion to dismiss stage. "In granting Defendants' motion to dismiss, this Court joins a
10 growing list of courts in this state that have dismissed substantially identical claims
11 challenging the same state COVID-19 Orders." BK Salons, LLC v. Newsom, No.
12 221CV00370JAMJDP, 2021 WL 3418724, at *1 (E.D. Cal. Aug. 5, 2021).

13 As opposing counsel state in support of their motion to dismiss: "Courts have
14 decided that similar COVID protocols to the one challenged here do not violate any
15 constitutional rights or state or federal laws. See, e.g., Kheriaty v. Regents of the Univ. of
16 California, No. 22-55001, 2022 WL 17175070 (9th Cir. Nov. 23, 2022); Schmidt v. City of
17 Pasadena, No. LA CV21-08769, 2023 WL 4291440 (C.D. Cal. Mar. 8, 2023)" (University
18 Defendants' memorandum supporting the motion to dismiss, pg. 1).

19 And as Steve says in his report and recommendation (R&R), "neither masking
20 indoors nor testing before entering a public space are "constitutionally problematic"
21 requirements. Klaassen v. Trs. of Ind. Univ., 7 F.4th 592, 593 (7th Cir. 2021); see
22 Guilfoyle v. Beutner, 2021 WL 4594780, at *16-17 (C.D. Cal. Sept. 14, 2021) (no
23 fundamental right to not wear masks or not be screened); Health Freedom Def. Fund, Inc.
24 v. City of Hailey, 590 F. Supp. 3d 1253, 1266 (D. Idaho 2022) ("[M]ask-mandates are not
25 a form of medical treatment that triggers a fundamental liberty interest")" (pg. 7 of the
26 recommendation and report). As covered above, however, prior cases are not binding for
27 issues of law that weren't raised in those cases.
28

1 **Motion to Dismiss Standards**

2 To the best of my knowledge, there is no factually similar case that has ruled yet on the
3 particular question of law that I will cover in greater detail in this brief. That would mean
4 the question of law that I raise is a novel legal theory under this set of facts.

5 On a motion to dismiss, even prior cases that are factually similar are irrelevant
6 when concerning a new question of law that is raised. “To the extent Plaintiffs’ claims do
7 ‘not fall within the four corners of our prior case law,’ this ‘does not justify dismissal
8 under Rule 12(b)(6). On the contrary, Rule 12(b)(6) dismissals are especially disfavored in
9 cases where the complaint sets forth a novel legal theory that can best be assessed after
10 factual development.’” Wright v. North Carolina, 787 F.3d 256, 263 (4th Cir. 2015)
11 (citing McGary v. City of Portland, 386 F.3d 1259, 1270 (9th Cir.2004)). “The court
12 should be especially reluctant to dismiss on the basis of the pleadings when the asserted
13 theory of liability is novel or extreme, since it is important that new legal theories be
14 explored and assayed in the light of actual facts rather than a pleader’s suppositions.”
15 Elec. Constr. & Maint. Co., Inc. v. Maeda Pac. Corp., 764 F.2d 619, 623 (9th Cir.1985).

16 When opposing a motion to dismiss, the Plaintiff’s burden is incredibly low.
17 “Under the [Federal] Rules a plaintiff can plead the right legal theory, the wrong legal
18 theory or **even no legal theory at all... without impacting on the complaint’s**
19 **sufficiency.**” Carl A. Haas Auto. Imports, Inc. v. Lola Cars Ltd., 933 F. Supp. 1381, 1384
20 (N.D. Ill. 1996) (emphasis added). “In ruling on motion to dismiss for failure to state
21 claim upon which relief can be granted, legal test to be applied is not whether all of relief
22 asked for by plaintiffs could possibly be granted but **whether under any state of facts**
23 **which might be established at a trial in support of claim they could be accorded any**
24 **relief** (emphasis added).”

25 Sch. Dist. of Kansas City, Mo. v. State of Mo., 460 F. Supp. 421, 429 (W.D. Mo. 1978).
26 “For purposes of evaluating a motion to dismiss, the court ‘must presume all factual
27 allegations of the complaint to be true and draw all reasonable inferences in favor of the
28 nonmoving party.’” Tucker v. Apple Computer, Inc., 493 F. Supp. 2d 1090, 1095 (N.D.

Cal. 2006). A motion to dismiss complaint for failure to state a claim “allows of no discretion in the usual sense. The complaint is either good or not good.” Mitchell v. E-Z Way Towers, Inc., 269 F.2d 126, 130 (5th Cir. 1959).

Immunity

Even though this question of law has not been ruled on yet in cases *that have similar facts*, questions of immunity do not pose a threat to this complaint when ruling on this motion. “An official sued in his personal [individual] capacity, although deprived of eleventh amendment immunity, may assert a defense of qualified immunity.” Pena v. Gardner, 976 F.2d 469, 473 (9th Cir. 1992), as amended (Oct. 9, 1992). “[D]ismissal of a § 1983 suit under Rule 12(b)(6) is a delicate matter that district courts should approach carefully...’ Qualified immunity is ‘almost always a bad ground for dismissal’ and is more appropriately addressed on a motion for summary judgment.” Manos v. Caira, 162 F. Supp. 2d 979, 995 (N.D. Ill. 2001). “A defense of qualified immunity cannot ordinarily support dismissal under Fed.R.Civ.P. 12(b)(6).” Liffiton v. Keuker, 850 F.2d 73, 76 (2d Cir. 1988).

When testing qualified immunity, the “reasonableness of official action... must be “assessed in light of the legal rules that were clearly established at the time [the action] was taken.” Ziglar v. Abbasi, 137 S. Ct. 1843, 1866 (2017). “Clearly established rights are not limited to federal laws but **may also be found in state statutes**. *Sabia v. Neville*, 165 Vt. 515, 522, 687 A.2d 469, 474 (1996). **There is no need for a case on point**, but existing precedent must have placed the statutory or constitutional question **beyond debate**” to defeat qualified immunity. Nelson v. Town of Johnsbury Selectboard, 115 A.3d 423, 441 (Vt. 2015) (emphasis added).

“[T]he reasonableness of the official’s conduct is **not measured against the official’s actual knowledge of constitutional standards** and the probable constitutionality of his or her action, but rather against a relatively uniform level of ‘presumptive knowledge’ of constitutional standards.” Emery v. Holmes, 824 F.2d 143,

1 147 (1st Cir. 1987) (emphasis added). “A constitutional right is clearly established if ‘in
 2 **light of pre-existing law the unlawfulness [of the alleged conduct is] apparent.**’
 3 *Anderson v. Creighton*, 483 U.S. 635, 640, 107 S.Ct. 3034, 3039, 97 L.Ed.2d 523 (1987).
 4 This is true **even if the “very action in question” had not then been held to be a**
 5 **constitutional violation.**” *Hale v. Townley*, 45 F.3d 914, 919 (5th Cir. 1995) (emphasis
 6 added).

7 “[S]ubjective intent is not relevant to the reasonableness prong of the qualified
 8 immunity test because that factor is governed by an objective test.” *Sweaney v. Ada Cnty.*,
 9 *Idaho*, 119 F.3d 1385, 1393 (9th Cir. 1997). “[O]nly officials performing discretionary, as
 10 opposed to ministerial [mandatory], functions, are entitled to qualified immunity.” *Perez*
 11 *v. Oakland Cnty.*, 466 F.3d 416, 429 (6th Cir. 2006). “[T]he principle that an agent is
 12 liable for his own torts ‘is an ancient one and applies even to certain acts of public officers
 13 or public instrumentalities.’” *Larson v. Dom. & For. Com. Corp.*, 337 U.S. 682, 687
 14 (1949).

15 The facts of the complaint are sufficient to defeat the motion to dismiss. As a matter
 16 of law, the Defendants’ motions cannot stand. How? To answer that question, we delve
 17 into the context of written constitutions.

18 19 **The Purpose of Constitutions**

20 “The people of the United States erected their Constitutions, or forms of
 21 government, to establish justice, to promote the general welfare, to secure the blessings of
 22 liberty; and to protect their persons and property from violence.” *Calder v. Bull*, 3 U.S.
 23 386, 388 (1798). “[T]he limitations imposed by our constitutional law upon the action of
 24 the governments, both state and national, are essential to the preservation of public and
 25 private rights.” *Hurtado v. People of State of Cal.*, 110 U.S. 516, 536 (1884).

26 “The idea of the Constitution ‘was to withdraw certain subjects from the
 27 vicissitudes of political controversy, to place them beyond the reach of majorities and
 28 officials and to establish them as legal principles to be applied by the courts.’” *Obergefell*

1 v. Hodges, 576 U.S. 644, 677 (2015). A “constitution stands above legislative and judge-
 2 made law, and the rights contained therein speak ‘for the entire people as their supreme
 3 law.’ *Davis v. Burke*, 179 U.S. 399, 403 (1900).” *In re Town Hwy. No. 20*, 45 A.3d 54, 64
 4 (Vt. 2012). “Unlike ordinary legislation, a constitution is enacted by the people
 5 themselves in their sovereign capacity and is therefore the paramount law.” *State ex rel.*
 6 *Workman v. Carmichael*, 819 S.E.2d 251, 263 (W. Va. 2018). A state constitution “reflects
 7 the will of the people, who hold the ultimate political power in the state.” *United Auto*
 8 *Workers, Loc. Union 1112 v. Brunner*, 911 N.E.2d 327, 332 (Ohio App. 10th Dist. 2009).

9 Likewise, “the California Constitution is the paramount authority to which even
 10 sovereignty of the state and its agencies must yield.” *City and Cnty. of San Francisco v.*
 11 *Regents of U. of California*, 442 P.3d 671, 684 (Cal. 2019). “[A]ll branches of [California]
 12 government are required to comply with constitutional directives.... [e]very constitutional
 13 provision is self-executing to this extent, that everything done in violation of it is void.”
 14 *Katzberg v. Regents of U. of California*, 58 P.3d 339, 342 (Cal. 2002).

15 Moreover, it is especially worth noting that no emergency can suspend or modify
 16 constitutional provisions. “Emergency does not create power. Emergency does not
 17 increase granted power or remove or diminish the restrictions imposed upon power
 18 granted or reserved. The Constitution was adopted in a period of grave emergency. Its
 19 grants of power to the federal government and its limitations of the power of the States
 20 were determined in the light of emergency, and they are not altered by emergency.” *In re*
 21 *Kazas*, 70 P.2d 962, 965 (Cal. App. 4th Dist. 1937). “Emergencies do not create power....
 22 There is no express or implied exception in this constitutional provision.” *Kirkpatrick v.*
 23 *Stelling*, 98 P.2d 566, 573 (Cal. App. 1st Dist. 1940).

24 “The worst of precedents may be established from the best of motives.” *U.S. v.*
 25 *Bollman*, 24 F. Cas. 1189, 1192 (C.C.D.D.C. 1807). The tendency of courts to permit
 26 “zeal for the public interest... to overstep the bounds of the law and the constitution” is
 27 well-known. *Ibid.*

1 “The constitution was made for times of commotion. In the
 2 calm of peace and prosperity there is seldom great injustice.
 3 Dangerous precedents occur in dangerous times. It then
 4 becomes the duty of the judiciary calmly to poise the scales of
 5 justice, unmoved by the arm of power, undisturbed by the
 6 clamor of the multitude.... In cases of emergency it is for the
 7 executive department of the government to act upon its own
 8 responsibility, and to rely upon the necessity of the case for its
 9 justification; but this court is bound by the law and the
 10 constitution in all events.” Ibid.

11
 12 So, it is clear that constitutional provisions are not suspended during emergencies,
 13 including alleged COVID-19 pandemic emergencies or any other purported public health
 14 emergencies. While government officials may “enact such measures as will protect all
 15 persons from the impending calamity of a pestilence... That [public health] powers would
 16 be conferred without regulating or controlling their exercise is not to be supposed.” Jew
 17 Ho v. Williamson, 103 F. 10, 20 (C.C.N.D. Cal. 1900). Although there is much
 18 disagreement among the public over whether the global COVID-19 response was due to a
 19 real pandemic emergency or to something else altogether, we may save any factual
 20 disputes for a different day. On a motion to dismiss, the law is all that matters. Emergency
 21 or no, all constitutional provisions are always in full effect and are binding upon all
 22 branches of government.

23 24 **Defining Liberty and Property Interests**

25 We now turn to the question of due process. As Steve says in his R&R (pg. 6): “In his first
 26 federal count, plaintiff alleges that defendants denied him ‘procedural due process under
 27 the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution.’ (FAC at 18). To state such a claim,
 28 plaintiff must allege facts showing ‘(1) a deprivation of a constitutionally protected liberty

1 or property interest, and (2) a denial of adequate procedural protections.’ Kildare v.
 2 Saenz, 325 F.3d 1078, 1085 (9th Cir. 2003).” There is no dispute that the facts alleged in
 3 the complaint amount to a deprivation of liberty. What is at issue before this Court is
 4 whether that deprivation was *lawful*.

5 Further, the facts of this case also indicate a deprivation of a property interest from
 6 the Plaintiff. “Property interests... are created and their dimensions are defined by
 7 existing rules or understandings that stem from an independent source such as state law—
 8 rules or understandings that secure certain benefits and that support claims of entitlement
 9 to those benefits.” Bd. of Regents of State Colleges v. Roth, 408 U.S. 564, 577 (1972).

10 We now turn to state law to see if Elijah has a protected property interest in his
 11 continuous, uninterrupted enrollment at Cal Poly. California Education Code §66201
 12 plainly states:

13
 14 It is the intent of the Legislature that each resident of California
 15 who has the capacity and motivation to benefit from higher
 16 education should have the opportunity to enroll in an institution
 17 of higher education. **Once enrolled, each individual should**
 18 **have the opportunity to continue as long and as far as his or**
 19 **her capacity and motivation**, as indicated by academic
 20 performance and commitment to educational advancement, will
 21 lead him or her to meet academic standards and institutional
 22 requirements [emphasis added].
 23

24 As already discussed in the complaint, unconstitutional conditions or restrictions may not
 25 be imposed upon college attendance (or any other activity of life). The notion that there is
 26 “no fundamental right to a university education” is irrelevant here (see pg. 6 of the report
 27 and recommendation). “College attendance, **whether it be a right or a privilege....** We
 28 do not hold that a school has the authority to require a student to discard any

1 constitutional right when he matriculates.” Esteban v. C. Missouri State College, 415 F.2d
2 1077, 1089 (8th Cir. 1969) (emphasis added).”

3 California law agrees. “By the act of matriculation... a contract between the student
4 and the institution is created containing two implied conditions: (1) that the student will
5 not be arbitrarily expelled, and (2) that the student will submit himself to reasonable rules
6 and regulations... [this contract], by its very nature, **incorporates constitutional**
7 **principles of due process.**” Andersen v. Regents of U. of California, 99 Cal. Rptr. 531,
8 535 (Cal. App. 1st Dist. 1972) (emphasis added).

9 So, it is clear that Elijah has a contractual property interest and liberty interest in
10 continuous enrollment at a public university he is admitted to, especially so when he does
11 not abuse his position at the university. Peles v. LaBounty, 153 Cal. Rptr. 571, 575 (Cal.
12 App. 2d Dist. 1979).

13 But you may be tempted to protest, “What about the COVID-19 pandemic? Elijah
14 wasn’t completely banned from attending courses. The university gave him the option to
15 attend. Elijah was suspended because he refused to follow the COVID mandates.” That’s
16 correct. Yet, as we shall discuss further in specific detail, Elijah had a right to attend
17 university free of COVID mandates.

18 It is well established under law that “[p]ersonal liberty is a fundamental right.”
19 People v. Applin, 46 Cal. Rptr. 2d 862, 864 (Cal. App. 5th Dist. 1995). Further, “[a] man
20 may not be deprived of his liberty for the doing of an act which is not and cannot be made
21 unlawful.” Ex parte Dees, 189 P. 1050 (Cal. App. 1st Dist. 1920). “Though there is no
22 constitutional right to free public education, state may not unequally condition access to
23 public education on performance of an act that infringes on exercise of First Amendment
24 [or any other] rights.” Rader v. Johnston, 924 F. Supp. 1540 (D. Neb. 1996). “The liberty
25 mentioned is deemed to embrace the right of the citizen to be free in the enjoyment of all
26 his faculties, to be free to use them in all lawful ways.” Ex parte Drexel, 82 P. 429, 430
27 (Cal. 1905).

28 There is no doubt that liberty is a constitutionally protected interest. Yet “the mere

1 deprivation by state action of a constitutionally protected interest is not in itself
 2 unconstitutional. What is unconstitutional is the deprivation of such an interest *without*
 3 *due process of law*.” Wallace v. Tilley, 41 F.3d 296, 299 (7th Cir. 1994). If public health
 4 measures are enacted *with* due process of law, all is good, and these measures may restrain
 5 liberty as needed to preserve the safety and welfare of the people.

7 **Defining Due Process**

8 This is the great question before this Court: where the COVID mandates enforced upon
 9 Elijah in accordance with due process of law? To answer this question, we must define
 10 what the fuzzy term “due process” means in the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S.
 11 Constitution. When defining otherwise ambiguous constitutional provisions, “it is not
 12 inappropriate briefly to review the background and environment of the period in which
 13 that constitutional language was fashioned and adopted.” Everson v. Bd. of Ed. of Ewing
 14 Tp., 330 U.S. 1, 8 (1947). So, our definition for “due process” begins here:

15
 16 “[T]he notion that a constitutional provision that guarantees
 17 only ‘process’ before a person is deprived of life, liberty, or
 18 property could define the substance of those rights strains
 19 credulity for even the most casual user of words.” *McDonald v.*
 20 *Chicago*, 561 U.S. 742, 811, 130 S.Ct. 3020, 177 L.Ed.2d 894
 21 (2010) (THOMAS, J., concurring in part and concurring in
 22 judgment). Rather, “**considerable historical evidence**
 23 **supports the position that “due process of law” was a**
 24 **separation-of-powers concept designed as a safeguard**
 25 **against unlicensed executive action, forbidding only**
 26 **deprivations not authorized by legislation or common law.’”**
 27 United States v. Vaello Madero, 142 S. Ct. 1539, 1545 (2022) (J.
 28 Thomas, concurring) (emphasis added).

1 Indeed, the “the pre-constitutional and Founding-era evidence regarding the
2 meaning of ‘due process of law’ strongly suggests the phrase most likely would have been
3 viewed in 1791... as guaranteeing either that duly enacted law would be followed or that
4 certain requisite procedures would be observed.” Ibid.

5 So, the U.S. Constitution’s mandate in the Fourteenth Amendment that “No State
6 shall... deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law” means
7 that a public official of a state may be liable for an act “not within the officer’s statutory
8 powers or, if within those powers, only if the powers, or their exercise in the particular
9 case, are constitutionally void.” Taylor v. Westly, 402 F.3d 924, 933 (9th Cir. 2005). This
10 is also known as acting *ultra vires*, or “beyond one’s power.”

11 It has already been established that Elijah had both a liberty and a property interest
12 in his continued attendance at university with no COVID restrictions. Elijah already
13 possessed these interests before he was deprived of them. “The Fourteenth Amendment’s
14 procedural protection of property is a safeguard of the security of interests that a person
15 has already acquired...” Newman v. Sathyavaglswaran, 287 F.3d 786, 790 (9th Cir. 2002).
16 So, the question remains, were the COVID restrictions within statutory and constitutional
17 powers?

18 “If plaintiff could show that the legislation here was arbitrary or irrational, **or that**
19 **the legislative process was defective**, she would have a triable issue of fact as to whether
20 she had been denied due process.” Rea v. Matteucci, 121 F.3d 483, 485 (9th Cir. 1997)
21 (emphasis added). “California did not and could not authorize its officer to take people’s
22 property **without notice and in the absence of any [lawful] connection to the State of**
23 **California.**” Taylor v. Westly, 402 F.3d 924, 935 (9th Cir. 2005) (emphasis added). “[I]t
24 goes without saying that the *most basic* [due process] violation possible involves the
25 performance of **unauthorized** [medical] tests.... The tests at issue in this case **thus**
26 **implicate rights** protected under both the Fourth Amendment and the Due Process
27 Clause of the Fifth or Fourteenth Amendments.” Norman-Bloodsaw v. Lawrence
28 Berkeley Laboratory, 135 F.3d 1260, 1269 (9th Cir. 1998) (emphasis added).

1 Now, the meaning of “due process” in this case is well-defined. For the purposes of
 2 the Fourteenth Amendment, if it is clear that the COVID mandates that the university and
 3 county Defendants enforced upon Elijah were not based in legislation, or
 4 “unauthorized,” or “in the absence of any [lawful] connection to the State of California,”
 5 or “that the legislative process” behind the enforced measures “was defective,” then
 6 Elijah has a “triable issue of fact” as to whether he had been denied due process in the
 7 context of the Fourteenth Amendment. In such a case, this Court would be compelled by
 8 law to deny the Defendants’ motions to dismiss.

9 Even if the COVID measures enforced on Elijah were enacted by the legislature,
 10 there would still be a requirement that the legislative act agreed with the state and federal
 11 constitutions, if the act were to be valid.

12
 13 “[T]he [due process clause] is a restraint on the legislative as
 14 well as on the executive and judicial powers of the government,
 15 and cannot be so construed as to leave [the government] free to
 16 make any process ‘due process of law,’ by its mere will. To what
 17 principles, then, are we to resort to ascertain whether this
 18 process, enacted by [the government], is due process? To this
 19 the answer must be twofold. We **must examine the**
 20 **constitution itself, to see whether this process be in conflict**
 21 **with any of its provisions.** If not found to be so, we must look
 22 to those settled usages and modes of proceeding existing in the
 23 common and statute law of England, before the emigration of
 24 our ancestors, and which are shown not to have been unsuited to
 25 their civil and political condition by having been acted on by
 26 them after the settlement of this country. Den ex dem. Murray
 27 v. Hoboken Land & Imp. Co., 59 U.S. 272, 276–77 (1855)
 28 (emphasis added).

1 **Interpreting Constitutional Provisions**

2 So, were the COVID mandates which were enforced upon Elijah valid regulations or
3 legislation? To answer that question, we turn to specific provisions of the California
4 Constitution. “It is axiomatic that ‘in every case involving the application or
5 interpretation of a constitutional provision, analysis must begin with the language of the
6 constitutional provision itself.’” State ex rel. Workman v. Carmichael, 819 S.E.2d 251,
7 264 (W. Va. 2018). “[I]n arriving at the meaning of a Constitution, consideration must be
8 given to the words employed, giving to every word, clause and sentence their ordinary
9 meaning. If doubts and ambiguities remain then, and only then, are we warranted in
10 seeking elsewhere for aid.” State Bd. of Ed. v. Levit, 343 P.2d 8, 20 (Cal. 1959).

11 Article IV, Section 8(b)(1) of the California Constitution states: “The Legislature
12 may make no law except by statute and may enact no statute except by bill.” Further,
13 Article IV, Section 8(d) states: “Urgency statutes are those necessary for immediate
14 preservation of the public peace, health, or safety. A statement of facts constituting the
15 necessity shall be set forth in one section of the bill. In each house the section and the bill
16 shall be passed separately, each by rollcall vote entered in the journal, two thirds of the
17 membership concurring.”

18 When reading this text of the California Constitution, take note that there is no
19 power conferred upon the Governor, state agencies, or counties to make statutes, even
20 “those that are necessary for immediate preservation of the public peace, health, or
21 safety.” Article IV, Section 3(b) states: “On extraordinary occasions the Governor by
22 proclamation may cause the Legislature to assemble in special session. When so assembled
23 it has power to legislate only on subjects specified in the proclamation but may provide for
24 expenses and other matters incidental to the session.” Indeed, even “on extraordinary
25 occasions,” these constitutional provisions do not contemplate delegation of legislative
26 authority to the state governor or any agencies or officials which are under his purview.

27 It is true that public officials have quasi-legislative authority to create rules and
28 regulations which help enforce the laws enacted by the legislature. But “[a]n

1 unconstitutional delegation of power occurs” when public officials are given “unrestricted
 2 authority to make fundamental policy determinations.” Clean Air Constituency v.
 3 California State Air Resources Bd., 523 P.2d 617, 626 (Cal. 1974). “[A] governmental
 4 agency that acts outside of the scope of its statutory authority acts ultra vires and the act is
 5 void.” California Dui Lawyers Assn. v. California Dept. of Motor Vehicles, 229 Cal. Rptr.
 6 3d 787, 800 (Cal. App. 2d Dist. 2018).

7 So, what was the scope of authority that was conferred upon the Defendants when
 8 they enforced COVID-19 measures on Elijah? The scope of the authority conferred upon
 9 the Defendants has its origins in the California Emergency Services Act (California
 10 Government Code §8550 et seq.). The Governor may authorize emergency powers to be
 11 exercised by public officials, including the Defendants.

12 Yet by its express terms this Act states that “[n]one of the provisions of this chapter
 13 shall limit, modify, or abridge the powers vested in the Governor under the Constitution
 14 or statutes of the state.” Cal. Govt. Code §8574. Indeed, this legislation, and all
 15 legislation, is to be interpreted in accordance with the state and federal constitutions. “If
 16 the statute is offensive to the Constitution it is ‘no law at all’” and is beyond the legislative
 17 power. P. Indem. Co. v. Myers, 296 P. 1084, 1087 (Cal. 1931). If “a law or ordinance is
 18 beyond the legislative power,” it is “to that extent void.” Ex parte Dart, 155 P. 63, 67
 19 (Cal. 1916).

20 Further, a legislative enactment that confers power upon public officials is “void for
 21 vagueness” if it “delegates basic policy matters to [public officials]” for “resolution on an
 22 *ad hoc* and subjective basis.” People v. Lopez, 20 Cal. Rptr. 3d 801, 805 (Cal. App. 6th
 23 Dist. 2004).

24 Even if the California Emergency Services Act conferred discretion to public
 25 officials to make “basic policy matters” to protect vague and broad notions of health and
 26 safety, the Act would be void for vagueness. “A challenge to a statute based on vagueness
 27 grounds requires the Court to consider whether the statute is sufficiently clear so as not to
 28 cause persons ‘of common intelligence... necessarily [to] guess at its meaning and [to]

1 differ as to its application.’” Humanitarian L. Project v. Ashcroft, 309 F. Supp. 2d 1185,
2 1198–99 (C.D. Cal. 2004).

3 What may be required to “protect the health and safety,” as described in Cal. Govt.
4 Code §8550, is certainly a topic that would “cause persons... to guess at” the meaning of
5 the mystical notion of “protect[ing] the health and safety” and would create serious
6 dispute “as to its application.” So, any statute purporting to protect public health and
7 safety must be specific, and public officials must follow the statute.

8 Public officials, including the Defendants, may not enforce orders or public health
9 regulations that are not bound by any clear, unambiguous interpretation of a statute and
10 are instead subjectively based in the California governor’s or public health officials’ vague
11 notions of “protect[ing] the health and safety.” Statutes that are not specific in scope are
12 void for vagueness. Yet some statutes that appear ambiguous by themselves are actually
13 not, because they need to be interpreted in context. “If a reasonable and practical
14 construction of a statute can be given, the law will not be held void for uncertainty.”
15 DeLisi v. Lam, 252 Cal. Rptr. 3d 336 (Cal. App. 1st Dist. 2019).

16 So, there is no need to hold the California Emergency Services Act
17 unconstitutional. This Act simply must be interpreted in the context of the California
18 Constitution to define the specific scope of the Act. As mentioned before, the California
19 Constitution makes it clear that “[t]he Legislature may make no law except by statute and
20 may enact no statute except by bill.” Cal. Const. Article IV, §8(b)(1). The California
21 Constitution also makes it clear that even on “extraordinary occasions,” all the governor
22 is allowed to do is issue a “proclamation” that “may cause the Legislature to assemble in
23 special session.” Cal. Const. Article IV, §3(b). “If there is any doubt as to the
24 Legislature’s power to act in any given case.... Such restrictions and limitations [imposed
25 by the Constitution] are to be construed strictly, and are not to be extended to include
26 matters not covered by the language used.” People v. Camba, 57 Cal. Rptr. 2d 907, 911
27 (Cal. App. 1st Dist. 1996).

28 When a mode of procedure has been provided by the California Constitution, that

1 mode is mandatory, and is the total measure of power conferred. “The provisions of
 2 article I, section 28 [formerly s 22] relating to the mandatory and prohibitory nature of the
 3 provisions of the Constitution apply to all sections of the Constitution alike, and everyone
 4 subject to its mandate must comply.” Taylor v. Madigan, 126 Cal. Rptr. 376, 381 (Cal.
 5 App. 1st Dist. 1975). “[Courts] must enforce the provisions of our Constitution and ‘may
 6 not lightly disregard or blink at ... a clear constitutional mandate.’” People v. Super. Ct.
 7 (T.D.), 250 Cal. Rptr. 3d 661, 667 (Cal. App. 5th Dist. 2019), as modified on denial of
 8 reh’g (Sept. 3, 2019).

9 “To be valid, administrative action must be within the scope of authority conferred
 10 by the enabling statutes, and if the court determines that a challenged administrative
 11 action was not authorized by or is inconsistent with acts of the legislature, that action is
 12 void.” Hamilton v. Gourley, 126 Cal. Rptr. 2d 652 (Cal. App. 3d Dist. 2002).

13 Since there is no procedure for state officials to create or enforce emergency law or
 14 emergency public health mandates without legislatively-enacted “enabling statutes”
 15 authorizing them to do so, the Defendants acted beyond their scope of authority in
 16 enforcing COVID mandates upon Elijah. A proper, constitutional application of the
 17 Emergency Services Act would be to allow the governor to take specific action *after* the
 18 legislature has created unambiguous “enabling statutes” declaring the specific conditions
 19 for the exercise of emergency power and the specific, unambiguous powers granted.

20 Neither the report nor opposing counsels’ briefs point to any specific, unambiguous
 21 constitutional or statutory authority that proves that the COVID mandates which were
 22 enforced upon Elijah were within the scope of the law. They cannot because there are
 23 none. This would make the COVID mandates “null under law,” meaning that they could
 24 be disregarded with “legal impunity” (see page 8 of the recommendation and report and
 25 page 19, footnote 42 of the amended complaint).

26 The constitutional requirement for formal legislation may sound inconvenient and
 27 inefficient in the context of a public health emergency that public officials might need to
 28 respond to immediately, but a “[c]onstitution does not exist to guarantee efficiency; it

exists to guarantee individual liberty.” Bradshaw v. Berryhill, 372 F. Supp. 3d 349, 361–62 (E.D.N.C. 2019), aff’d sub nom. Probst v. Saul, 980 F.3d 1015 (4th Cir. 2020).

The Duty of the Court

Now that it is clear that the Defendants violated the California Constitution and laws when enforcing COVID-19 mandates to deprive Elijah of his liberty and property interests in his education without due process of law, we now determine if a federal court has jurisdiction over the matter.

Even though the “validity of [an] act has not been directly presented to or determined by the state court, but the first attack by the parties interested is made in the federal court and by this suit, and conflict with both Constitutions is alleged,” it is undisputed that “[u]ndoubtedly a federal court has the jurisdiction, and... [it is] its duty to pass upon an alleged conflict between a statute and the state Constitution, even before the question has been considered by the state tribunals. All objections to the validity of the act, whether springing out of the state or of the federal Constitution, may be presented in a single suit, and call for consideration and determination.” San Francisco Gas & Elec. Co. v. City and Cnty. of San Francisco, 189 F. 943, 947 (C.C.N.D. Cal. 1911).

“A federal court’s duty, when faced with a constitutional challenge such as this one, is to employ traditional tools of statutory construction to determine the statute’s [or COVID order’s] ‘allowable meaning.’ In doing so, we look to the words of the statute itself as well as state court interpretations of the same or similar statutes.” California Teachers Ass’n v. State Bd. of Educ., 271 F.3d 1141, 1147 (9th Cir. 2001).

That work has already been done for this Court. There is no “allowable meaning” that makes enforcement of a COVID order upon Elijah (or anyone else for that matter) either constitutional or lawful. COVID-19 orders are inherently repugnant to the state and federal constitutions, as well as state and federal law, and any deprivation of liberty and property resulting from a COVID order—even temporarily—is a denial of due process of law.

1 **Civil Rights Violations**

2 It matters not that COVID orders may have been enforced on populations equally,
 3 or that Elijah was “no more particularly harmed” than others (see page 5 of the
 4 recommendation and report). That just makes the COVID-19 orders a civil rights violation
 5 of colossal proportions, a concept which, unfortunately, is not new to government. “The
 6 state regulates the use of a public highway by citizens of the United States solely upon the
 7 basis of race.” Plessy v. Ferguson, 163 U.S. 537, 553 (1896) (mass racial discrimination),
 8 “Three generations of imbeciles are enough.” Buck v. Bell, 274 U.S. 200, 207 (1927)
 9 (Justice Holmes, upholding a eugenics law). “In support of this blanket condemnation of
 10 all persons of Japanese descent, however, no reliable evidence is cited to show that such
 11 individuals were generally disloyal.” Korematsu v. U.S., 323 U.S. 214, 236 (1944) (forced
 12 internment in concentration camps). “The [quarantine and vaccination] regulations they
 13 have adopted **appear to be without legislative authority**, but assuming that they have the
 14 sanction of a general authority under the resolution of May 18, 1900, still they cannot be
 15 sustained. They are not based upon any established distinction in the conditions that are
 16 supposed to attend this plague, or the persons exposed to its contagion... without regard
 17 to the previous condition, habits, exposure to disease, or residence of the individual.”
 18 Wong Wai v. Williamson, 103 F. 1, 7 (C.C.N.D. Cal. 1900) (coerced vaccination of Asian
 19 people traveling from San Francisco) (emphasis added). Mass civil rights violations
 20 happen because egomania is contagious.

21 **Non-enforcement of Civil Rights Law**

22 In his report and recommendation, Steve asserts that Elijah does not have standing
 23 to sue since the COVID orders affected “the public at large” (see pg. 5 of the report).
 24 Although it is unclear what logic or legal theory this might be based on, it appears to be a
 25 perversion of equal protection clause jurisprudence. The “Equal Protection Clause
 26 guarantees that the Government will treat similarly situated individuals in a similar
 27 manner.” U.S. v. Vaello Madero, 142 S. Ct. 1539, 1559 (2022) (J. Sotomayor, dissenting).
 28

1 An obvious exception to this clause is when the government is committing a laundry list of
2 crimes and constitutional violations.

3 “[A]n unlawful or unauthorized exercise of power does not become legitimated or
4 authorized by reason of habitude.” In re Benny, 29 B.R. 754, 762 (N.D. Cal. 1983). “The
5 failure of the executive branch to enforce a law does not result in its modification or
6 repeal.” D.C. v. John R. Thompson Co., 346 U.S. 100, 113–14 (1953).

7
8 “Decency, security, and liberty alike demand that government
9 officials shall be subjected to the same rules of conduct that are
10 commands to the citizen. In a government of laws, existence of
11 the government will be imperiled if it fails to observe the law
12 scrupulously. Our government is the potent, the omnipresent
13 teacher. For good or for ill, it teaches the whole people by its
14 example. Crime is contagious. If the government becomes a
15 lawbreaker, it breeds contempt for law; it invites every man to
16 become a law unto himself; it invites anarchy. To declare that in
17 the administration... [of the] law the end justifies the means-to
18 declare that the government may commit crimes in order to...
19 [govern] would bring terrible retribution. Against that pernicious
20 doctrine this court should resolutely set its face.” Olmstead v.
21 U.S., 277 U.S. 438, 485 (1928).

22 23 **Conceded Arguments**

24 As for Steve’s assertions that Elijah had “no fundamental right” or “constitutionally
25 protected liberty interest” in not being suspended from his university, it is unclear why he
26 made these assertions *ipse dixit* and did not bother addressing or interpreting any of the
27 constitutional provisions and statutes that were presented in the complaint and the
28 opposition to the motions to dismiss, as well as this brief of objections (see pgs. 11-14 of

the amended complaint and pg. 13 of the opposition brief). Although he cited cases that had upheld other mandates as constitutional, none of those cases have addressed or ruled on the specific *ultra vires* due process issue I have repeatedly presented.

“A **federal court’s duty**, when faced with a constitutional challenge such as this one, is to employ traditional tools of statutory construction to determine the statute’s [or constitution’s] ‘allowable meaning.’ In doing so, we look to the words of the statute itself as well as state court interpretations of the same or similar statutes.” California Teachers Ass’n v. State Bd. of Educ., 271 F.3d 1141, 1147 (9th Cir. 2001) (emphasis added).

Why Steve would abandon his duty to interpret the constitutional provisions at issue is unclear, especially when this is a case about fundamental constitutional rights. “It is emphatically the province and duty of the judicial department to say what the law is.” Whole Woman’s Health v. Jackson, 595 U.S. 30, 61–62 (2021). Without interpreting the provisions at issue, it is impossible to know what “fundamental rights” Elijah has in this case. “What provision of the Constitution could any judge rightly declare less than fundamental?” U.S. v. Vaello Madero, 142 S. Ct. 1539, 1555 (2022) (J. Gorsuch, concurring).

Of course, the work has already been done in this brief. From the complaint, the opposition to the motions, and now this objection brief: interpretations of the due process clause of the U.S. Constitution’s Fourteenth Amendment and the California Constitution’s Article IV, Sections 3(b), 8(b)(1), and 8(d); Article I, Section 26; and discussion of their relation to the COVID-19 orders are still waiting to be contested before this Court.

To date, opposing counsel has not addressed nor disputed the interpretation of the Fourteenth Amendment due process clause and the California Constitution that has been repeatedly presented in the complaint, the opposition to the motions, and now in this brief. If this interpretation is true, then the Defendants are liable for enforcing COVID order upon Elijah. “When a party fails to respond to an argument, that argument is generally deemed to be unopposed and the proposition conceded.” AK v. Behavioral

1 Health Sys., Inc., 382 F. Supp. 3d 772 (M.D. Tenn. 2019). “In most circumstances, failure
 2 to respond in an opposition brief to an argument put forward in an opening brief
 3 constitutes waiver or abandonment in regard to the uncontested issue.” Stichting
 4 Pensioenfonds ABP v. Countrywide Fin. Corp., 802 F. Supp. 2d 1125, 1132 (C.D. Cal.
 5 2011).

6 7 **Liability for Damages**

8 It follows then, that if the Defendants violated Elijah’s rights and deprived him of his
 9 liberty and property interests, then they owe damages. “[E]very violation [of a right]
 10 imports damage.” Uzuegbunam v. Preczewski, 141 S. Ct. 792, 802 (2021) Although the
 11 compensatory damages outlined in the complaint are “retroactive” (pg. 36 of amended
 12 complaint and pg. 10 of report and recommendation), they are retroactive because
 13 enforcement of the COVID orders were also retroactive in their effect on Elijah’s
 14 contractual engagement with his university. “[B]y the act of matriculation, together with
 15 payment of required fees, a contract between the student and the institution is created.”
 16 Kashmiri v. Regents of U. of California, 67 Cal. Rptr. 3d 635, 646 (Cal. App. 1st Dist.
 17 2007).

18 Elijah matriculated in 2019, and he didn’t pay and work at a four-year degree to get
 19 suspended indefinitely halfway through, especially when the unlawful COVID mandates
 20 that suspended him were still in effect for a long time after, depriving him of vital time that
 21 he could have spent completing his studies. Worse still, there was nowhere else to go. As
 22 Steve pointed out, COVID mandates were imposed on the “public at large.” Now don’t
 23 get me wrong, public health mandates are good, if they are based on law and evidence.
 24 Unfortunately, the years-long “emergency COVID response” was based on neither.

25 “[E]very statute [or COVID order], which takes away or impairs vested rights
 26 acquired under existing laws, or creates a new obligation, imposes a new duty, or attaches
 27 a new disability, in respect to transactions or considerations already past, must be deemed
 28 retrospective.” Strauss v. Horton, 46 Cal. 4th 364, 471–72, 207 P.3d 48, 120 (2009).

1 Since Elijah's matriculation took place in 2019, and a "contract between the
2 student and the institution is created" by the "act of matriculation," (see *Kashmiri*, 67
3 Cal. Rptr. 3d 635, 646) and the COVID orders "impose[d] a new [unlawful] obligation...
4 in respect to transactions or considerations already past," then Elijah's liberty and
5 property interests were damaged, and Elijah is entitled to a jury on the issue of the relief
6 requested in the complaint (pg. 36 of complaint).

7 8 **Recommendation**

9 I now will recommend what the Court should do on the motions to dismiss.

10 "[N]either a state nor its officials acting in their official capacities can be sued under
11 the Civil Rights Act, because they are not "persons" under section 1983. (*Will v. Michigan*
12 *Dept. of State Police*, *supra*, 491 U.S. at p. 71, 109 S.Ct. 2304.).... [S]ection 1983 actions can
13 only be brought against individuals." California Correctional Peace Officers Assn. v.
14 Virga, 103 Cal. Rptr. 3d 699, 707 (Cal. App. 1st Dist. 2010). "Our analysis of the
15 legislative history of the Civil Rights Act of 1871 compels the conclusion that Congress *did*
16 intend municipalities and other local government units to be included among those
17 persons to whom § 1983 applies." Monell v. Dept. of Soc. Services of City of New York,
18 436 U.S. 658, 690 (1978). So, state defendants are immune only in their official capacities,
19 and county defendants are arguably not immune in any capacity. As for qualified immunity
20 issues, see pages 5 and 6 of this brief.

21 Also, there is no need to comply with state notice-of-claim statutes for this suit. A
22 state "notice-of-claim statute conflicts in both its purpose and effects with § 1983's
23 remedial objectives, and because its enforcement in state-court actions will frequently and
24 predictably produce different outcomes in § 1983 litigation based solely on whether the
25 claim is asserted in state or federal court, it is pre-empted pursuant to the Supremacy
26 Clause when the § 1983 action is brought in a state court." Felder v. Casey, 487 U.S. 131,
27 131 (1988).

28 So, the Fourteenth Amendment due process, 42 U.S.C. §1983, and 42 U.S.C.

§1985(3) claims should not be dismissed to the individual capacity of the Defendants but may be dismissed to all university Defendants in their official capacities. The county Defendants may be liable in their official capacities. Also, it cannot be emphasized enough that **the COVID mandate cases that the report and opposing counsel cite do not cover the issues of law raised in this case and do not control this case** (see the Introduction section on page 1, Interpreting Constitutional Provisions on page 14, and Conceded Arguments on page 20).

As for the RICO extortion claim: “It may well be proper under the Hobbs Act for the Government to charge a person who obtains money by threatening a third party.” Sekhar v. United States, 570 U.S. 729, 734, 133 S. Ct. 2720, 2725, 186 L. Ed. 2d 794 (2013). The university and county Defendants received official pay for enforcing COVID mandates, which was outside the scope of their lawful and official duties (see pages 20-23 of the amended complaint). The right to make business decisions and to solicit business free from wrongful coercion is a protected property right under the Hobbs Act. 18 U.S.C.A. § 1951. U.S. v. Zemek United States Court of Appeals, Ninth Circuit. October 6, 1980 634 F.2d 1159.

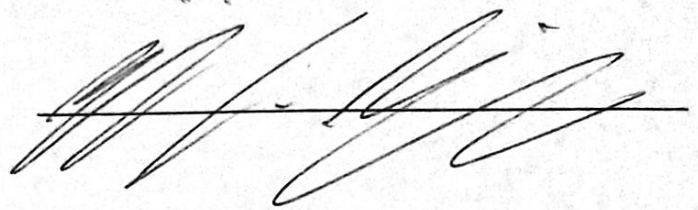
The RICO 18 U.S.C. §1962(c) extortion claim would be best examined after discovery. It may be dismissed to the Defendants in their official capacities but not dismissed in their individual capacities.

As for the criminal statutes: “[E]ven if the statute at issue does not provide for a private right of action, plaintiffs’ claims should not automatically be dismissed. Under the liberal rules of federal practice, dismissal under Federal Rule of Civil Procedure 12(b)(6) is proper “only where there is no cognizable legal theory or an absence of sufficient facts alleged to support a cognizable legal theory.” Corrections USA v. Dawe, 504 F. Supp. 2d 924, 934 (E.D. Cal. 2007).

The remaining claims should not be dismissed. They would be better assessed as the case develops.

1 Dated: 9/29/2023
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I, Elijah Behringer, being duly sworn, do state and affirm according to law, that I have first-hand knowledge of the undisputed material facts and am competent to testify in these matters, and swear under penalty of perjury that these facts are true and correct.



Elijah J. Behringer

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PROOF OF SERVICE

I, Elijah Behringer, declare and state:

I am over the age of 18 years old and a resident of San Bernardino County. My mailing address is PO Box 2973, Crestline, CA 92325.

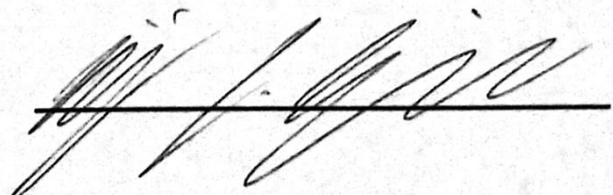
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I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and correct.

Dated: 9/29/2023


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